# THE PHYLOGENY OF SOME MAYFLY GENERA 

By Herman T. Spieth<br>(Continued from Vol. XLI, page 86)

# PHYLOGENETIC RELATIONS OF GENERA 

Super Family Siphlonuroidea
Family Siphlonuridce

## Siphlomurus

This genus possesses the most primitive wing to be found within the order. In the fore wing (Fig. 3), $\mathrm{R}_{3}$ is truly attached to $R_{2}$, and the $R_{3}$ triad has not been greatly modified. $M P_{1}$ is attached to $\mathbf{M P}_{2}$ and this triad likewise has not been greatly changed from its primitive condition. CuA still shows distinctly a triadic method of forking on its distal end, and basally CuA and CuP meet as in the hypothetical primitive insect wing. Three anal veins are present. The interpolated veins are vigorous and attached basally.

The hind wing (Fig. 4) is large and Sc is only moderately arched; consequently the radial area is small. The radius and medians do not fuse but run into the base. The anterior median is triadically forked. There are no interpolated veins in the Cu area and three anals are found within the large anal area.

In contrast to the wings, the genitalia are specialized. In mature nymphs the forceps (Fig. 58) are 3-jointed, the styliger plate is flatly cone shaped and the penes can be distinguished as rod shaped organs. In the adult the styliger plate (Fig. 61) is extremely elongated and is longer than wide. The forceps which arise from the postero-lateral corners of the styliger plate are four-jointed, consisting of a short, heavy, trunk-like basal joint, a slender, slightly arced, long second segment, and two comparatively short, slender terminal members. The penes are distinctly divided into two separate organs which are accompanied by parameres and spurs. The penes, as well as the accessory organs, vary in shape among the different species.

The mouth parts are decidedly primitive in structure. The mandibles (Fig. 95) are of the generalized type. Both laciniae mobiles (Fig. 166) are similar. The maxillary palp (Fig. 118) is 3 -jointed. The lacinia-galea (Fig. 118) is sturdy and has not been modified. It is straight, with a faint trace of the suture between the galea and the lacinia. The lacinial dentes are strong. The lacinial spurs are distributed along the inner surface. Setae are to be found on the terminal part of the galea and along the inner lacinial portion.

The labium (Fig. 143) likewise is primitive, having palps that are 3 -jointed, while the mentum, submentum, and internal lobe are all small and match very closely the hypothetical, primitive type. Both glossae and paraglossae are distinct, not only in size and shape but also in method of attachment.

Gills are found on the first seven abdominal segments. The posterior five (Fig. 204) are large, foliaceous, single structures. They possess no filaments or other modifications, and merely represent an expanded, primitive gill. The tracheal method of ramification is distinctive. The two anterior pairs of gills (Figs. $198,199)$ are similar to the others except that they are double instead of single. Each component of the double gills is much like one of the five posterior, single gills. According to Needham (1905) and McDunnough (1930), the nymph of S. alternatus is an exception in having all seven gills double.

To summarize, the wings strongly suggest that Siphlonurus is primitive. With the exception of the reduced secondaries and the accompanying changed shape of the primaries in the anal region the wings in this genus might be mistaken for those of the Permian Protereismidae. The data from the mouth parts (with the unmodified mandibles, lacinia-galea, and labium, the 3 -jointed palps of both the labium and maxillae, and also the similar laciniae mobiles) parallel the wing findings. The 4-jointed forceps and the complicated penes indicate specialization. In regard to the shape of the joints and the styliger plate of the genitalia, Siphlonurus stands distinct from the remainder of the family.

The gills similarly show Siphlonurus to be distinct. The arrangement of double and single gills, and the shape and distribution of the trachea are peculiar to this genus.

Siphlonurus probably arose directly from the Protereismidae stock or from a stock that was closely related to the Protereismidae. While it has some peculiar specializations, it shows in the more conservative characters, especially the wings, a decided primitiveness, and occupies the lowest position in the phylogenetic scheme of the extant forms.

## Family Heptageniddae

## Isonychia (Chirotonetes)

The wings of this genus are much like those of Siphlonurus, but display some specialization. In the fore wing (Fig. 10) the $R_{3}$ has broken away from $R_{2}$ and is now connected by a cross vein. The connection of $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{MP}_{1}$ is greatly weakened and the CuA triad has been almost completely obscured. The anal area is smaller than in Siphlonurus and the interpolated veins are unattached basally. The hind wings (Fig. 11) are like those of Siphlonurus in so far as phylogenetic significance is concerned.

During the last nymphal instar the genital forceps (Fig. 57) are 2-jointed and are borne on an elongated, cone shaped styliger plate. Between the forceps two sharply pointed, posteriorly directed processes of the styliger plate are to be found. Between these processes the styliger plate is excavated.

In the adult state (Fig. 59) the forceps are 4 -jointed. The styliger plate (Fig. 59) in I. bicolor wlk., and other closely related species is divided and consists of two narrow rectangular structures, from the terminal end of which arise the forceps. Basally, between these two structures, a posteriorly directed protuberance arises. In the case of $I$. arida Say and its close relatives the styliger plate is only slightly excavated. Doubtless this splitting of the styliger plate into two parts in the case of the bicolor complex represents a specialized condition. The penes (Fig. 59) in the case of the bicolor complex are simple, consisting of two posteriorly directed processes. In the arida complex, however, they are more complex having spines developed on a recurved protuberance that arises near the outer distal edge of the penes. (See McDunnough, Can. Ent. 63 : 158.)

The mandibles (Fig. 91) are distinct, especially as to shape. The dentation is much like that of other generalized mandibles;
the outer right canine has three teeth, the inner right two teeth; and at the base on the posterior side a flange of the caine covers the lacinia mobilis. The two laciniae mobiles (Figs. 170, 171) are dissimilar. The maxillae (Fig. 119) show a distinct relationship to the remainder of the Heptageniidae. The palp is 2 -jointed, with the terminal joint longer than the proximal joint. The lacinia-galea is expanded and, while not expanded so greatly as in the other Heptageniidae, the shape is the same. The lacinial dentes, and the arrangement of the hairs on the lacinia-galea and on the palps exhibit a primitive form which is probably close to the type from which the other more specialized Heptageniidae were derived.

The labium (Fig. 147) has 2-jointed palps. The paraglossae, the glossae, and the internal lobe are all distinctive in this genus.

Gills are to be found on the first seven abdominal segments. They are all alike except in size. They are compound, each gill consisting of an anterior, sub-oval, foliaceous lamella (Fig. 205) on the fore side of which runs an oblique ridge. The lamellae contain pinnately branching tracheae. The posterior part (Fig. 200) consists of a flattened fascicle of filaments. This type of gill (i.e., one anterior lamella and a posterior flattened fascicle) is characteristic not only of Isonychia but also of its relatives the other Heptageniidae.

Isonychia, to sum up, has a venation and other wing characteristics such as shape, size of hind wings, etc., that indicate a fair amount of primitiveness. On the basis of the shape and number of the segments of the genital forceps, of the maxillae, and of the gills, Isonychia has been placed in the Heptageniidae. The shape of the penes, the condition of the styliger plate, the shape of the mandibles, and the labium, all indicate modifications that are peculiar to the genus itself and distinctly set it apart from all other existing forms.

## Heptagenia, Ecdyonurus,* Rhithrogena, and Epeorus.

The remainder of the Heptageniidae, considered here, consist of a closely knit group of which there are six genera commonly

* Since this has been written, Traver has published two papers (Jour. Elisha Mitchell Sci. Soc., 48: 141-207; N. Y. Ent. Soc., 41: 105-125) in which he has designated the new genus Stenonema, which I find identical with the genus Ecdyonurus as defined here.
conceded to be present in North America, i.e., Heptagenia, Ecdyonurus, Iron, Rhithrogena, Epeorus, and Cinygma. All of these with the exception of Heptagenia were erected by Eaton who employed American material for Iron, but European material for the other four. Heptagenia was described by Walsh who used his Heptagenia flavescens as the genotype.

Eaton employed, as the primary means of identifying the various genera, the tarsal joints of the hind legs. Later Needham (1905) used the tarsal joints of the male fore tarsus, especially the first joint; McDunnough (1924) followed Needham. Eaton realized that the use of tarsal joints was beset with difficulties due to the shrinkage of the members and due to the fact that regenerated nymphal legs did not mature into normal organs. The use of the fore leg is encumbered with more difficulties because, in addition to the above mentioned ones, these members are very delicate and are usually the first part of the body to be lost. Furthermore, this system leaves no method for identifying females.

This group can never be thoroughly understood and a natural classification-one that will express the evolution of the groupcan never be constructed, until the nymphal and adult stages have been connected for a large number of species, and until large series over wide-spread areas have been collected. Then by utilizing all nymphal and adult characters, a true and natural classification may be designed. At this time I do not have enough material, especially in the genera Epeorus and Rhithrogena, for a thorough and detailed discussion of the group. Consequently this discussion is restricted to pointing out a few of the evolutionary changes that the group has undergone. This discussion is based mainly upon nymphal material. Iron and Cingyma, of which the nymphs of the latter are unknown, are omitted.

The wings (Figs. 5, 6, 12, 13, 14) of all of these genera are uniform in so far as the primary venation is concerned. In the fore wings the $R_{3}$ has become detached from $R_{2}$ and is now connected to $R_{2}$ by cross veins. The $R_{3}$ triad has been modified so that $R_{3 b}$ appears as the direct prolongation of $R_{3}$ and thus $R_{3 a}$ is a distinct vein. $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$ is distinctly attached to $\mathrm{MP}_{1}$ well out on the wing so that the M triad is as primitive as that found in Siphlonurus.

The $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$ triad, which was found in the Protereismidae and Siphlonurus, has become completely obliterated. Two pairs of interpolated veins are to be found within the Cu area, these constituting the distinguishing marks of these genera. At their bases CuA and CuP bend forward so as to lie very close to M within the wing root. Three anals and two interpolated veins are present.

In the hind wings (Figs. 7, 14, 16) Sc is more strongly arched than in Siphlonurus; MA and $R$ are fused out to the level of the costal projection ; and MA gives rise to a triad. There is a pair of interpolated veins between CuA and CuP , except in the Heptagenia maculipennis complex where they are lacking. The anal area is greatly reduced with $A_{1}$ and $I A_{1}$ distinct and $A_{2}$ a short unattached vein.

Concerning the cross veins and the pigmentation of the veins there is a great amount of variability, as was indicated in the section on cross veins. This cross-venation apparently is not a valid criterion for the recognition of genera, although it may indicate the lines of evolution within each genus. This is shown by the genus Ecdyonurus which has three distinct modifications of cross venation. Thus the E. tripunctata complex has one group in which the cross veins are aggregated in the region of the bulla as far back as the costa (Fig. 6), and another (Fig. 12) in which there is no indication of aggregation. In the E. interpunctata complex there is an aggregation extending back to the $\mathrm{R}_{2}$, and also a long, longitudinal black streak between the $R_{1}$ and $R_{2}$ in the region of the bulla (Fig. 5). In the maculipennis complex of the genus Heptagenia there are two types of cross venation, one with aggregation and one without it.

In the mature nymphs the genitalia (Figs. 50, 51, 52, 66, 67) are similar to that of Isonychia with the exception that the part of the styliger plate lying between the bases of the forceps consists of a hump shaped structure and is usually not deeply excavated as in Isonychia. In the adults, the forceps (Figs. 49, $53,60,62$ ) which are much like those found in Isonychia, consist of a short somewhat conical joint, a long slender second joint, and two short slender terminal joints. These are constant throughout the group. The styliger plate (Figs. 49, 53, 60, 62) likewise
is uniform throughout the group. The penes, however, are highly variable. In the genus Ecdyonurus two distinct types are to be found: one with $L$ shaped penes (the tripunctata complex, Fig. 53), and the other with penes which are stub-like and slightly expanded at the tip (interpunctata complex, Fig. 60). In the genus Heptagenia the species of the maculipennis complex have peculiar penes which differ considerably from those of the other Heptagenia species. The reader is referred to the sketches of McDunnough for further information on the variability of the penes of the species of Heptageniidae.

The mandibles are quite constant in shape (Figs. 97, 98, 100, 101,102 ) and the molar area is not highly variable. The incisors and laciniae mobiles, on the other hand, are quite variable. The lacinia mobili is present in some of the Heptagenia as a group of large setae (Fig. 185), and in Ecdyonurus interpunctata (Fig. 174) as a single hair; and it is lacking in all the rest. The inner incisors are reduced in Ecdyonurus and Heptagenia (Figs. 99, 101, 102), having one prong terminating in a sharp point, while the other retains its normal shape. In Epeorus they are greatly reduced but not sharply pointed (Fig. 100), while in Rhithrogena (Fig. 98) the inner incisors are almost lacking. With this reduction there has been an enlargement of the outer incisors. Generally speaking they are scoop-shaped and vary in size inversely to the inner members, being moderate in size in Heptagenia and very large in Rhithrogena.

The maxillae have 2-jointed palps. The terminal segment is long, expanded, and hairy, thus forming an efficient sweeping organ to brush food into the mouth (Figs. 120, 121, 124, 125, 128, 130). The maxillae of Heptagenia (Fig. 124) and Ecdyonurus (Figs. 125, 128, 130) are similar in size and shape, while those of Rhithrogena (Fig. 120), and Epeorus (Fig. 121) approach each other in appearance. In Rhithrogena the hairs of the terminal segment have become enormously enlarged with secondary, lateral processes which form a unilateral, comb-like organ (Fig. 120).

The lacinia-galea in Heptagenia and Ecdyonurus is a large, broadly expanded organ with a characteristic shape (Figs. 124, 125). The lacinial dentes are greatly reduced, and the lacinial
spurs are fine. Along the straight edge of the lacinia, a closely set row of slender setae extend. Another row of widely spread setae is located more nearly on the median axis of the lacinia. On the end of the lacinia-galea there are a number of setae. In Heptagenia these have become enormously enlarged and secondarily branched at their inner, distal margins so as to form comblike structures (Fig. 124). In Ecdyonurus, especially in the tripunctata complex (Fig. 130), this modification of the seta is only slightly indicated. In Epeorus (Fig. 121) and Rhithrogena (Fig. 120), the lacinia-galea is much stouter and terminally much narrower than in Heptagenia. Those of Epeorus are armed terminally with three massive teeth (Fig. 121), while the setae on the galea portion are reduced to a minimum. Rhithrogena (Fig. 120), with a lacinia-galea that compares with that of Epeorus, lacks the heavy tooth-like structure. It has galeal setae and lacinial dentes as in Heptagenia.

The labium (Figs. 142, 145, 146, 148, 149) is a rather uniform structure throughout the group and consists of a broadly expanded internal lobe with large flat paraglossae and finger-like glossae. The 2-jointed palps are enormous and flattened. The basal joint is pear-shaped and attached on one side to the internal lobe. The short, heavy, second joint bears on its inner surface an area that is densely covered with setae.

The gills are all of the same type as described for Isonychia, each gill consisting of an anterior foliaceous lamella that serves for both protection and respiration, and a posterior fasciculated member which is wholly respiratory in function. The shape of the anterior lamellae varies greatly. In Epeorus (Figs. 209, 210), whose species live in swift currents, the anterior lamellae are beset with an area of spines on their outer edge so that the gills can serve as grasping organs. Thus the nymphs are enabled to climb the face of a vertical stone wall or to maintain themselves in swift currents. When the anterior lamellae are being employed in this manner, the fasciculated posterior lamellae are so constructed that they extend out between the body of the animal and the inner basal part of the shield portion and thus are exposed to the wash of the water. In such nymphs, the posterior gill portions are small. Rhithrogena has the anterior
parts of the first pair of gills greatly elongated so that the front edges of these come in contact with each other under the abdomen, but the outer edges of the anterior lamellae are not as greatly modified for prehensile organs as in Epeorus.

Ecdyonurus and Heptagenia both live in still or only moderately swift water, and the gills are not adapted for grasping and suction as in the above mentioned genera. Further, the posterior, fasciculated lamellae can retain their normal position behind the leaf-like anterior members and still be exposed for aeration. The posterior lamellae are large (Figs. 202, 207, 216) providing a large aerating organ for use in the quieter water in which they dwell. In the Heptagenia the seventh gill usually consists of both an anterior and posterior portion, but the posterior part may be lacking as in the H. maculipennis complex (Fig. 215). The genus Ecdyonurus has the posterior part of the seventh gill completely lacking and the anterior part has been reduced to a small structure shaped like an arrow-head (Figs. 203, 208). In the first six gills of the E. tripunctata complex, the anterior lamellae are elongate, quadrilateral structures (Fig. 201), while in the $E$. interpunctata complex the corresponding members are broadly obovate and terminate distally in a sharp point (Fig. 206).

From the above evidence, incomplete as it is, two distinct major lines of evolution can be distinguished. One is represented by Heptagenia and Ecdyonurus and the other by Epeorus and Rhithrogena.

Ecdyonurus, on the basis of wings, genitalia, gills, and maxillae, displays two lines of development. One is represented by the tripunctata and the other by the interpunctata complex. The latter appears to be more closely related to Heptagenia than is the former. The genus Heptagenia (when sufficient amounts of material have been studied) will doubtless show as divergent lines of development as Ecdyonurus does. The maculipennis complex will probably represent one of these lines.

On the basis of nymphal characters, Epeorus and Rhithrogena are all closely related. The maxillae, however, show Epeorus to be distinct, while Rhithrogena (although displaying distinct affinities) also shows a similarity to the more primitive species
of Heptagenia. This group can not be profitably discussed until further data are available.

## Family Baëtidae

The genera Callibaëtis, Baëtis, Centroptilium, Cloëon, and Pseudocloëon all have been derived from a common stock and still form a closely compact group. The most striking characteristic of these genera is the excessive reduction that the metathoracic wings have undergone. This reduction reaches its extreme development in Cloëon and Pseudocloëon where the hind wings are completely lacking. In the fore wing the cross venation has been greatly reduced and the basal attachments of $\mathrm{MA}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$ with their respective triads have been obliterated. $\mathrm{R}_{3}$ is always detached and is shortened so that it is about as long as $I R_{2}$ Along the margin of the fore wing, between each of the principal veins, there are short intercalary veins. The number of these veins in each wing space is either one or two, depending upon the genus under consideration.

After noting the distinctive morphology of each of the genera of this group, we will discuss their phylogenetic relations in the sections concerned with Cloëon and Pseudocloëon.

Callibaëtis. The hind wing of this genus (Fig. 24) is fair sized and has a number of cross veins present. The fore wing (Fig. 23) also has a goodly number of cross veins. The intercalaries vary in number with the various parts of the wing. In this genus, as in all of the other genera of the family, the genitalia during the nymphal state are almost, if not wholly, lacking as visible external organs. In mature nymphs the genital organs can sometimes be seen through the thin chitin of the ninth sternite. In the case of Callibaëtis, however, mature nymphs have tiny cone shaped forceps (Fig. 56).

In the adult state, the genitalia (Fig. 48), as in all the rest of the relatives of this genus, exhibit a peculiar condition in having the styliger plate divided into separate parts. From the posterior ends of these structures arise the 2 -jointed forceps, consisting of a long, slender, basal segment and a short, small, terminal segment. The penes are internal (uncertainly extrusible), all evidence of external organs being completely absent.

The mandibles (Fig. 96) are heavy and sturdy with short incisors and large molar areas, the grinding ridges of which are narrow and numerous. The laciniae mobiles are dissimilar (Figs. 179, 180).
The maxillae (Fig. 123) are like the mandibles, i.e., heavy, thick, and sturdy, with strong lacinial dentes and lacinial spurs. The palps are 2-jointed with the segments about the same length.

The labium (Fig. 157) has 3-jointed palps with the first joint longer than the distal two combined. The paraglossae and glossae are finger-like structures arising from the nearly straight anterior edge of the inner lobe. They are about the same size.

The gills in Callibaëtis are peculiar structures, differing among different species. In one species (undetermined) the first two (Fig. 218) are triple; the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth (Fig. 217) are double, and the last one (Fig. 218) is single. This type of gill appears to have originated from a lateral extension of a single gill. This extension is supplied with a single branch of the main trachea. In the course of the evolution, this flap became folded at its junction with the main part of the gill giving rise to a double gill. Still later this secondary part in turn gave rise to an extension and thus the triple gill originated. In another species of Callibaëtis the triple portion of the first and second gills is very small, while Eaton states that the gills of a species which he had are all double, and Needham describes the nymph of C. skokiana as having all of the gills double, the inferior portions becoming progressively smaller on the posterior gills. These double gills would appear to be more primitive than the triple gills.

Baëtis. The cross venation in the fore wings of Baëtis (Fig. 17) is greatly reduced. The hind wings (Figs. 19, 20, 27) have been extremely reduced and the costal projection now consists of a small, obtuse, sharply pointed structure, or it is in some instances absent. The hind wing varies greatly in different species of the genus. Thus B. parvus Dodds has a large hind wing for a Baëtis (Fig. 19). The costal projection is present and, in addition to the usual veins in a baëtid hind wing, MA is to be found as a simple vein attached to the radius. In Baëtis intercalaris McDunnough (Fig. 20), the costal projection is
present, but MA is lacking. In other species (Fig. 27), the costal projection and the median is lacking.

The genitalia are invisible during the nymphal state (Fig. 73). The adult genitalia (Fig. 65) like that of Callibaëtis consist of a divided styliger plate, a 2-jointed forceps, and internal penes. The forceps segments, especially the long basal joints, vary greatly in shape. Usually they are expanded proximally and show incipient segmentation where they contract. In Baëtis spinosus McDonnough this basal enlargement is long, and at the point of contraction a distinct shoulder evidences itself on the inner side of the segment. The terminal joint is slender and moderately long.

The mandibles (Fig. 107) are heavy and strong with the enormous canines directed slightly outward and fused to form a single structure. The laciniae mobiles terminate with heavy, rounded teeth.

The maxillae (Fig. 127) like the mandibles are strong and thick, with heavy lacinial dentes and lacinial spurs. The palps are 2 -jointed.

The labial palps (Fig. 162) are 3-jointed, the terminal joint being short and terminating roundly. The second joint may be broadly distended distally (B. pygmaeus, Fig. 162), or may be of an even size throughout. The paraglossae and glossae arise from the straight anterior edge of the internal lobe. The former are finger-like structures, while the latter are slender, sharply pointed, and somewhat shorter than the paraglossae.

The gills (Fig. 220) which are to be found on abdominal segments one to seven are single, sub-oval, foliaceous structures, each with a pinnately branched trachea. In the case of B. pygmaeus, the terminal gill is broadly lanceolate.

Pseudocloëon. The genus Pseudocloëon (Figs. 18, 70) is like Baëtis in every item of nymphal and adult structure considered here, except that the adult lacks hind wings and the nymph has only two caudal setae. McDunnough has established a genus Hetercloëon (of which the nymphs are also unknown), for those species in which the hind wings are present but are reduced to a mere thread. What the nymphs of these two genera are like can only be hypothesized. Considering wing characters alone,
a graded series can be found which extends from the condition found in Baëtis parvus to that found in Pseudocloëon. Bengtsson (1912) established the genus Acentrella for those species in which the hind wing lacks the costal projection and possesses only two longitudinal veins, i.e., the Sc and R. In the present paper neither Acentrella nor Hetercloëon are accepted as good genera, but are treated as elements of true Baëtis. It is possible that even Pseudocloëon should be considered part of the genus Baëtis, comparable with the short winged forms known among Drosophila, leaf hoppers, beetles, parasitic hymenoptera, gall wasps, etc. (See Kinsey, 1930.) Each of the types of reduced wings in these mayfly groups may have arisen by direct and independent mutation from a form such as $B$. parvus. It is not necessary that there has been a gradual decrease in the size of the hind wings. The Pseudocloëon species may be more closely related to a species of Baëtis than are two species which are now unquestionably regarded as members of that genus.

A thorough and careful working of the whole group with large series from wide localities, plus the correct association of the nymphs with the adults, may throw some light upon the question of relationships and the relative positions of the various species in the evolutionary scheme. Until that time it is necessary to admit that our classification may be and probably is an artificial one, and that it can not be said with certainty that it represents a picture of the phylogenetic history of the group.

Centroptilium. The fore wing of Centroptilium (Fig. 25) is similar to that of Baëtis except that only one intercalary is to be found in each marginal wing space. The hind wing (Fig. 28) is long, slender, and very narrow with an acuminate costal projection.

The genitalia (Fig. 69), while basically like those of Baëtis and Callibaëtis during both the nymphal and adult stages, show distinctive differences in the adult in having the terminal segment small and droplet shaped, while the first or proximal segment is expanded at its termination. The styliger plate is divided. The penes are external, being represented by small, hump-like structures. They show no indication of being double. In only a few species of this genus have the nymphs and adults been
associated. Eaton has figured C. lutelolum which he connected to the proper adult by field observation and possibly by rearing. McDunnough has connected the nymph of his C. album with its adult, and Ide has identified the nymphs of $C$. convexum Ide and C. bellum McDunnough.

There is goodly variation between these nymphs in regard to mouth parts and gills. Only by extensive rearing of many species will the problem be completely cleared up.

The mandibles (Fig. 99) and also those described for C. lutelolum are more like generalized mandibles than are those to be found in Baëtis. The canines are not fused, and the laciniae mobiles are distinct. In one species of Centroptilium, however, the mandibles are similar to those of Baëtis.

The maxillae (Fig. 122) are also more generalized in shape and ornamentation than those of Baëtis. In C. album and C. lutelolum the palps are 3 -jointed, but in C. convexum, C. bellum, and $C$. sp. they are only 2 -jointed with the terminal joint long and slender.

The labium (Fig. 150) has the glossae and paraglossae about equal in size, with the glossae terminating sharply and the paraglossae slightly curved. They arise from the slightly bulging internal lobe. The palps are always 3 -jointed with the terminal joint expanded, short, and truncate. This truncate, last segment of the labial palp is one of the primary means of identifying Centroptilium nymphs. In C. bellum, however, the terminal margin of this segment is slightly oblique.

The gills, like the mouth parts, are variable. Eaton has figured the gills of $C$. lutelolum as being similar to those of Baëtis except that they terminate acutely. This, along with the characteristic labial palp, has been employed as a primary means of identification. On the other hand, in $C$. album and $C$. convexum they are broadly rounded, and in other species (Fig. 213) they become broadly expanded distally so that the gills are somewhat triangular in shape. In C. bellum and an undetermined species (Fig. 221) all seven gills possess a slender lateral flap that has been folded back so as to create a double gill. It is impossible to say at present whether this heterogeneous group of nymphs
really represents a single, phylogenetic unit. It is perfectly plausible that the nymphs have undergone mutations while the adults have remained the same, and this seems a reasonable explanation for the variations cited above.

The gills in this group of genera, as was apparent in Callibaëtis and Baëtis, and as will hold true for Cloëon, are highly variable structures.

Cloëon. Concerning the wings and genitalia of the adults, this genus (Figs. 26, 64) is an exact duplicate of Centroptilium except that it completely lacks a hind wing.

The mandibles (Fig. 103) are much like those of Baëtis. The maxillae (Fig. 126) have 2-jointed palps with segments like those in Centroptilium.

The labium (Fig. 154) shows distinct relationship to Centroptilium except that the terminal palp segment is obliquely truncate.

The gills are roughly oval (Cloëon simile Fig. 212) or sub-oval (Fig. 214), and have a lateral flap on gills one to six which has been folded parallel to the main body of the gill so as to form a compound gill. McDunnough states that this lateral flap is present on the seventh gill of $C$. igens, but it is lacking on $C$. mendax according to Ide and also according to my own observations.

Thus, within this compact group of genera, it is possible to distinguish three distinct lines of evolution. Callibaëtis represents one line, which is the most primitive of the three; the other two branches are highly specialized and about equal in position. Baëtis and Pseudocloëon make up one line and Centroptilium and Cloëon the other. If some of the related, monotypic genera are to be considered as valid, then Hetercloëon and Acentrella must be added to the Baëtris branch and Procloëon and Centroptiloides to the Centroptilium branch.

Bengtsson (1914) has discussed the phylogeny of this group, but while he recognized the distinct line of evolution represented by Callibaëtis, he derived Callibaëtis from Baëtis, and failed to recognize two distinct lines of evolution and has placed all of the remaining genera in a linear arrangement.

## Super Family Ephemeroidea

## Family Leptophlebidae

## Blasturus, Leptophlebia, Choroterpes, and Thraulus**

These four genera show decided relationships, and may be discussed together. They stand comparatively low on one of the main branches of the evolutionary tree of the mayflies.

Blasturus, which is probably the most primitive genus of the group, shows distinctive characters in the venation (Fig. 31). The $R_{3}$ has become completely detached at the base from $R_{2}$. The connection of $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$ to $\mathrm{MP}_{1}$ is weak. All traces of the CuA triad have been lost, and between CuA and CuP a pair of interpolated veins is to be found. CuP pursues a fairly straight course in the Heptageniidæ, Baëtidæ, and Siphlonurus, but is strongly arched in Blasturus. At its base it lies midway between CuA and $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ but within the wing root it swings sharply forward and joins $\mathrm{Cu}_{1}$. The anal area is small and only $\mathrm{A}_{1}$, and $\mathrm{A}_{2}$ with the interpolated vein $\mathrm{IA}_{1}$ are present; $\mathrm{A}_{1}$, however, is attached basally. In the hind wing (Fig. 32) the Sc displays the primitive condition of being moderately arched; $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ and MA, however, are fused for some distance; MA is unbranched, and a pair of interpolated veins lie in the CuA area. The hind wing is moderately large in comparison with the front wing.

Thraulus has greatly reduced hind wings (Fig. 30) and consequent with this reduction there has been a shifting of some veins and a complete suppression of others. The differences between the fore wing of Thraulus (Fig. 29) and Blasturus are restricted to the cubital and anal regions, and can be accounted for by the reduction of the hind wing and the consequent moving of the anal angle nearer the wing base. This has in turn been

[^0]accompanied by an enlargement of the cubital area and a reduction of the anal area.

The wing of Leptophlebia (Fig. 21) displays a venation and shape intermediate between that of Thraulus and Blasturus, but is closer to Blasturus than to Thraulus.

The genitalia of Blasturus, Leptophlebia, and Thraulus are much alike. During the mature nymphal stages, the styliger plate (Figs. 74, 78, 80) is a cone shaped structure which bears unjointed forceps on its sloping sides. The nymphal penes, which are hidden by the styliger plate, consist of two small finger-like structures which lie side by side. In the adult state, the styliger plate of Thraulus (Fig. 63) is narrow (antero-posteriorly, not laterally), with only a slight prominence along the posterior edge. This prominence is slightly indented at the middle. In Blasturus the styliger plate has been greatly extended postero-medially (Fig. 72) and is deeply incised along' the middle, though it is not completely divided into two elements. The species of the genus Leptophlebia (Fig. 68) exhibit a variable condition intermediate between that found in Blasturus and Thraulus not only in reference to the styliger plate but also in reference to the penes. Some species are like Blasturus, while others approach the condition found in Thraulus. The penes in Blasturus (Fig. 72) consist of two straight, posteriorly directed, rod-like processes which lie side by side. From the postero-dorsal surfaces of each of these bodies there arises a strongly arched, inwardly concave, slender, tail-like process which is directed anteriorly. The penes of Thraulus (Fig. 63) are similar except that the tail-like processes are lacking. Leptophlebia (Fig. 68), as mentioned above, exhibits an intermediate condition.

The forceps of Blasturus, Leptophlebia, and Thraulus in the adult condition are 3 -jointed with long, tapering basal joints and two short terminal segments of which the penultimate is the heavier and longer (Figs. 63, 68, 72). Thus these genera lack the basal articulation so characteristic of the Heptageniidae and Siphlonurus. Another peculiarity of the forceps is that they arise from the dorsal surface of the styliger plate and that the latter extends under them for a short distance posteriorly.

Usually in most genera the forceps arise from the posterior edge of the styliger plate.

The maxillary (Figs. 129, 131, 132) and labial palps (Figs. $151,155,160$ ) of these genera are all 3-jointed, with the first joint always the longest and sturdiest. They are all slender, cylindrical and unexpanded. The lacinia-galea is expanded (Figs. $129,131,132$ ), and on its terminal edge the lacinial portion bears a dense patch of setae. The lacinial dentes are small and the spines on the inner surfaces are restricted to the vicinity of the dentes.

As regards dentation and form, the mandibles in Leptophlebia and Blasturus are similar (Figs. 112, 115), while those of Choroterpes (Fig. 111) show some but not as close relationship.

The laciniae mobiles (Figs. 175, 176, 177, 178, 181, 182 ( also show distinct relationships between the three genera.

The paraglossae (Figs. 151, 155, 160) are expanded, especially in Choroterpes, so that they roughly resemble a quadrant of a circle. In Choroterpes the extreme development of the paraglossae has resulted in small, reduced glossae (which are short, finger-like bodies located between the paraglossae), while in Blasturus and Leptophlebia the paraglossae are not so decidedly expanded and the glossae are larger and more expanded, especially posteriorly, and slightly ventral in position in relation to the paraglossae.

The gills of Leptophlebia (Fig. 228) are double organs which consist of two blade-like lamellae which join basally forming a Y-like structure. Into the gills runs a single trachea which gives off a limb to each lamella. All seven pairs of gills are similar in construction. In Blasturus the first gill (Fig. 227) is identical with the gills of Leptophlebia. The remaining gills, however, have had the basal two-thirds of both lamellae broadly dilated (Figs. 225, 226), while the distal third has the same appearance as the distal part of the Leptophlebia gills, i.e., a slender, blade-like lamella. The basal parts of the last six gills of Choroterpes (Figs. 222, 223) are also broadly expanded, while the distal third is expanded but not as greatly as the proximal parts Between the distal and proximal parts the gill contracts strongly, and the distal part has become twisted so that this part of the
gill lamellae stands at right angles to the basal section. The first gill of Choroterpes (Fig. 224) consists of a single blade-like lamella.

From the above discussion it is evident that Leptophlebia and Blasturus present a closer affinity to each other than they do to Thraulus and Choroterpes although all four genera form a closely knit group. Indications that they all represent primitive branches of a major division of the Ephemerida are: (1) the fairly primitive condition of the wings, especially those of Blasturus; (2) the simple form of double gill consisting of two foliaceous lamellae without such special modifications as are found in the Heptageniidae and Baëtidae branches ; and (3) the 3-jointed forceps, lacking any indications of the basal articulation commonly found elsewhee in the order.

## Ephemeridæ

Potamanthus. This genus clearly stands intermediate between the genera Blasturus, Choroterpes, and Leptophlebia and the rest of the Ephemeridæ. Many of its characteristics connect it definitely with the Ephemeridæ while others undoubtedly indicate a derivation from the same stock from which Blasturus and its relatives arose.

The wing venation (Fig. 34), definitely places it as a close relative to Hexagenia (Fig. 41), Ephemera (Fig. 39), Polymitarcys (Fig. 43), Pentagenia (Fig. 37), and Campsurus (Fig. 38). In the fore wing there seems to be a tendency toward the elimination of $\mathrm{R}_{3}$ and $\mathrm{IR}_{2}$ not only in Potamanthus but also in the other Ephemeridæ. The $\mathrm{R}_{3}$ (Fig. 34) has lost its true basal attachment to $R_{2}$ and is now connected by a cross vein. The point of attachment, via the cross vein, is now much further from the base of the wing than it is in the primitive condition. Accompanying this there has been a reduction in the length of $I R_{2}$ and the branches of the $R_{3}$ triad. The posterior median and cubital veins have undergone distinctive specialization. $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$ has lost its true basal attachment and this rôle has been assumed by a cross vein, thus creating an obtuse angle between $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$ and $\mathrm{MP}_{1}$ (Fig. 34). This peculiar behavior of the posterior median is the chief character which is used to define the family Ephemer-
idæ. CuA and CuP have migrated anteriorly and immediately after their union they join $\mathrm{MA}_{1}$. Distally CuA is arched as in Blasturus and this, plus the decided anterior migration of the proximal part, has caused $\mathrm{CuA}_{1}$ to pursue a sigmoid course. CuP is also sigmoid but to a lesser degree. Between the cubital veins a number of posteriorly directed pectinates are to be found. $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ is distinctly present and has been carried forward, but $\mathrm{IA}_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ have not been prolonged anteriorly. The anal region is smaller than in Blasturus.

In the hind wing (Fig. 35), as in Blasturus and in the other Ephemeridæ, $\mathrm{R}_{1}$ and M are fused for a short distance and the MA is unbranched. The callus, however, apparently has migrated outwardly from its usual position which it occupies in the more primitive genera and forced the cubital veins apart.

While the wings of Potamanthus display a close relationship to the remainder of the Ephemeridæ, the genitalia (Fig. 77) show an equally distinct relationship to the Leptophlebiidæ. The condition of the genitalia (Fig. 79) in mature nymphs clearly indicates an intermediate condition between that found in the remainder of the Ephemeridæ and the Leptophlebiidæ. The forceps are 2-jointed, the styliger plate is roughly cone shaped, and the penes show a certain amount of fusion on their inner sides.

In the adult state (Fig. 77), the forceps are only 3-jointed, there being no basal articulation present which, as shall be shown later, is possessed by all the rest of the Ephemeridæ. The proportions and shapes of the various segments of the forceps are the same as those in Blasturus (Figs. 63, 68, 72) and its relatives. The penes are somewhat like those of Blasturus except that they lack the recurvant, finger-like process, and are expanded terminally, but assuredly they are more like the type found in Blasturus than any that are found in the remaining Ephemeridæ.

Concerning the mouth parts, the mandibles (Figs. 104, 108) are tusked as in the rest of the Ephemeridæ, but the dentation of Potamanthus has not undergone the shifting of position to which the incisors and molars of the other Ephemeridæ have been subjected.

The laciniae-mobiles (Figs. 186, 187) are distinctly similar to those in Blasturus (Figs. 175, 176) ; it should be noted that there is variability in the laciniae of the various genera. The left lacinia mobilis in Potamanthus represents a type intermediate between that found in Blasturus (Fig. 176) and Hexagenia (Fig. 190).

The maxillary palps (Fig. 133) are 3-jointed and the segments compare in shape to those of Blasturus (Fig. 129) except that the terminal segment has become elongated and the second segment is reduced. The shape and ornamentation of the laciniagalea approximate those of Blasturus except that the whole organ is more slender than it is in Blasturus.

The labial palps (Fig. 159) of Potamanthus are similar to the maxillary palps. The glossae and paraglossae (Fig. 159) are more expanded laterally.than those of Blasturus.

The gills of Potamanthus (Fig. 229) display the basic plan that is exhibited by the Leptophlebiidæ but, instead of the gill lamellae expanding as in Blasturus (Figs. 225, 226) and Choroterpes (Figs. 222, 223), they have developed a number of laterally directed filaments.

From the above discussion it is evident that Potamanthus (by virtue of the wings, the tusks of the mandible, and the gills) is related to the burrowing Ephemeridæ on one hand; while the genitalia, mouth parts, and the gills connect the genus with Blasturus and its relatives. The habitats of the various genera also lead to the same interpretation of relationships. Blasturus, Leptophlebia, and Choroterpes live on the bottom and crawl around in the debris, while Potamanthus is a semi-burrower and lives under stones and shells and other objects of like character on the bottoms of the streams. The remainder of the Ephemeridæ are true burrowers.

Hexagenia, Ephemera, Polymitarcys, Pentagenia, and Campsurus. The Ephemeridae or burrowers in North America consist of five genera besides Potamanthus, i.e., Hexagenia, Ephemera, Polymitarcys, Pentagenia, and the extraordinary stump-legged genus Campsurus. I do not possess nymphs of Campsurus so its relative position has been based upon the two adult characters, wings and genitalia. The stump-legged condi-
tion, however, is sufficient to show that, while its nearest relatives are undoubtedly the other burrowers, it stands distinct.

The wings of these genera (Figs. 37, 38, 39, 41, 43) are similar to those described above for Potamanthus except in a few features. In the fore wing the CuA always joins the MP before it joins CuP. Pentagenia has the $\mathrm{R}_{3}$ and its triad more reduced (Fig. 37). The genus Polymitarcys is distinct by virtue of the copious cross venation of its wing (Fig. 43) and the enlarged CuA area which lacks the posteriorly directed pectinates that are to be found in the other genera, but which does have two pairs of interpolated veins in the CuA area. From the fourth of these veins arises a series of pectinates, and the $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$ always fuses with CuA before it joins $\mathrm{MP}_{1}$. In the secondaries of this genus, the callus has retained the primitive position, while the radius and anterior median are unfused. In Campsurus (Fig. 43) the $R_{3}$ is unbranched in the male, due probably to the complete disappearance of $R_{3 a}$, while in the female both $R_{3}$ and $\mathrm{IR}_{2}$ are absent. The forking of the $\mathrm{MA}_{1}$ has receded to the wing base, and the basal part of $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$ has been lost so that the vein is now attached by a cross vein to IMP a goodly distance out from the wing base. The costal area has been greatly reduced and only a single pectinate vein runs posteriorly from CuA, while a sturdy cross vein is found between $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ and $\mathrm{CuP} . \mathrm{A}_{1}$ is the only anal vein present. In the hind wing of the male (Fig. 44) $R_{3}$ is unbranched just as it is in the hind wing of the female.

The genitalia of each of the above mentioned genera are distinctive. Within each genus the various species exhibit structures much alike, but between genera (even though they are closely related) there is an enormous amount of difference. During the mature nymphal state Ephemera (Fig. 81), Hexagenia (Fig. 85), and Polymitarcys (Fig. 86) agree, however, in having (1) a 3-jointed forceps, which consists of a short basal joint, a long second joint, and a short terminal joint; (2) small, ribbon-like styliger plates; and (3) externally visible forceps due to the reduction of styliger plates. I do not have enough material of Pentagenia to draw conclusions. In the adult state all of these genera agree in one point, i.e., the forceps possess a basal articulation, and thus are 4-jointed in Ephemera (Fig. 71),

Hexagenia (Fig. 76), Polymitarcys (Fig. 83), and Pentagenia (Fig. 82). These forceps consist of a short, sturdy basal joint and a long, slender second joint. Finally, segments three and four are relatively short and small. This definitely distinguishes these genera from Potamanthus which lacks all indications of a basal articulation. In Campsurus (Fig. 84), however, while the basal articulation is present, the terminal segments have been lost so that the forceps now consist of a short basal segment and a slender second joint which has become expanded on the terminal end. The styliger plate (Figs. 71, 76, 82, 83, 84) and penes proper present great differences between the various genera and do not serve as indicators of relationships.
The mandibles in these genera (Figs. 105, 106, 109, 110) are all tusked. This acquisition of tusks has been accompanied by the shifting and twisting of the molars and incisors. Thus the molars and incisors retain the same position as in primitive genera, even though the long axis of the mandibles has shifted from a perpendicular to a horizontal position.

The laciniæ mobiles bespeak an affinity between Ephemera (Figs. 193, 194) and Hexagenia (Figs. 189, 190) on one hand and Polymitarcys (Fig. 191) and Pentagenia (Fig. 195) on the other, with the former two closer than the latter.
As in Potamanthus the maxillary palps are 3 -jointed, except in Polymitarcys (Fig. 134) where they are 2 -jointed. The maxillæ, by virtue of their long slender palps and the slender, curved, sharply pointed lacinia-galea, indicate close relationships between Hexagenia (Fig. 138) and Ephemera (Fig. 139), while on the basis of this criterion Polymitarcys (Fig. 134) and Pentagenia (Fig. 140) are rather distinct.
The glossæ, the paraglossæ, and the internal lobes of the labium in Pentagenia (Fig. 156), Ephemera (Fig. 153), and Polymitarcys (Fig. 152) are similar to those found in Potamanthus (Fig. 159) as described above. In Hexagenia (Fig. 161), however, the postero-lateral area of the paraglossae has been produced until the point of attachment of the internal lobe lies on a midpoint on the inner surface of the paraglossae. Anteriorly the tips of the paraglossae almost touch since the glossae have been greatly reduced. The palps of the labium are 3-
jointed in Polymitarcys (Fig. 152) and Ephemera (Fig. 153), while in Hexagenia (Fig. 161) and Pentagenia (Fig. 156) they are 2-jointed.

The gills of these genera, like those of Potamanthus, are double, consisting of two blade-like lamellæ with filaments around the periphery. The first gill, however, is always very small, simply consisting of two blade-like lamellæ in Ephemera, Hexagenia (Fig. 230), and Polymitarcys, becoming a single leaf-like structure in Pentagenia (Fig. 239). The shape of the gills and the arrangement of the lamellæ indicate close affinities between Hexagenia (Figs. 231, 232) and Ephemera (Fig. 238) on one hand and Pentagenia (Figs. 233, 234) and Polymitarcys (Fig. 243) on the other.

Thus, to sum up, Hexagenia and Ephemera are closely related, constituting one of the evolutionary branches which has divided recently into these two genera. Campsurus represents another stock. Pentagenia and Polymitarcys are close relatives and represent still another stock, although they are more distinct from each other than Ephemera and Hexagenia are from one another.

Potamanthus stands as an intermediate between the other Ephemeridæ and the Leptophlebiidæ. The latter family represents an off-shoot from a primitive stock, the genera of which have been considerably modified since its origin. This primitive stock apparently had the genital forceps 3 -jointed, while the penes were rod-like structures, lacking both spurs and parameres. The wings were somewhat primitive but showed certain specializations, such as the reduction of the anal area, the bending posteriorly of the $\mathrm{Cu}_{2}$ and the detachment of $\mathrm{R}_{3}$. The nymphs were bottom dwellers and crawled around on the bottoms of streams. The mouth parts in all probability were like those found in the Leptophlebiidæ genera today. The gills probably resembled those of the present day Leptophlebia. Thus, they did not possess any special protection for their gills, nor were the gills capable of a great amount of movement so as to be able to keep up a circulation of water around them. The nymphs, which were probably poor swimmers, should have lived in fairly clear, well aerated water, and were probably excluded from swiftflowing streams which carried a large amount of heavy material
that would have injured the delicate gills. They could not have lived in the muck bottoms inhabited by the present day Tricorythus. After the origin of the Leptophlebiidae, the main stock underwent three morphological changes that were of great importance and one ecological change. The mandibles developed tusks; the wings developed the peculiar characteristics of the $\mathrm{M}, \mathrm{Cu}$, and anal veins of the Ephemeridæ, while the gills changed from the simply compounded type to something like that found in Potamanthus at the present time. At the same time the nymphs began a semi-burrowing existence. An individual of this primitive stock possibly looked like the present day Potamanthus, except that the primitive nymph was cylindrical in shape.

With the development of the tusks and the change in position of the incisors and molars, the nymphs became true burrowers. In the adult a basal articulation of the forceps of the genitalia was developed, so that these organs became 4-jointed.

## Family Ephemerellidæ

## Ephemerella

Ephemerella, along with Tricorythus, occupies a distinct and separate place in the phylogenetic story. The wings (Figs. 55, 47) show a relationship to Blasturus, but the position of the Cu veins basally and the strong arching of the CuA and $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ indicates a different type of specialization of the fore wing. The anal vein, especially, differs from that of Blasturus. The hind wing of Ephemerella (Fig. 55) is somewhat specialized in having the Sc strongly arched, the cross venation reduced, and the sinus on the anterior margin indicating an incipient reduction of the wing.

The adult forceps (Fig. 88) are distinct, for while they are 3-jointed, as they are in Blasturus, in Ephemerella the three segments consist of a short, heavy basal part, a long, slightly concave second segment, and a heavy and oval terminal member. It is possible that this type of forceps arose from the type found in Blasturus (Fig. 72) and its relatives, by the long basal joint of the latter developing an articulation near the base, and by the
loss of the terminal joint. The condition of the genitalia of Ephemerella during the nymphal state also substantiates this explanation. The genitalia of mature Ephemerella nymphs (Figs. 92, 93) show such close resemblance to those of Blasturus (Fig. 74) as to warrant this belief. In both instances the styliger plate is cone shaped with small, finger-like, unsegmented forceps arising from its sloping sides. We have seen that in Campsurus a parallel development has taken place, except that in Campsurus both terminal joints have been lost.

The penes (Fig. 88) is a simple, tubular affair which is incised at the tip. This penes obviously originated by the fusion of the two penes of the primitive stock. This is substantiated by the fact that the nymphal penes consist of two separate structures. The styliger plate is deep and the posterior edge may be arched or almost straight.

The mandibles (Fig. 113) are distinctly like those of Blasturus. The outer edges are more nearly straight and the body of each mandible is more slender, but in fundamental shape and dentation they are much like those of Blasturus. The laciniae mobiles (Figs. 188, 192) are much alike in the two genera.

The maxillae are peculiar. The maxillary palps are generally 3 -jointed (Fig. 135), but the palps are small and weak and in the bicolor group (Fig. 136) completely lacking. The laciniagalea (Figs. 135, 136) is massive and thick. The lacinial dentes and lacinial spurs are heavy and strong; the setae on the lacinial and galeal surfaces and the lacinial spurs are restricted to the terminal area of the lacinia-galea.

The labium (Figs. 164, 165) is likewise distinctive. The submentum is greatly expanded, and the internal lobe has been enlarged at the expense of the glossæ and paraglossæ which are small. The labial palps are 3 -jointed, with the first segment heavy and large, the second smaller, and the third very small.

The gills of Ephemerella, along with those of Tricorythus, are the most complex and distinctive within the family. Each gill consists fundamentally of a double gill of which the anterior member (Fig. 242), a heavy, foliaceous structure, serves principally as a protecting shield, although it also receives a tracheal branch and doubtless carries on some respiration. The posterior
gill member (Figs. 237, 240) consists of a foliaceous structure that has acquired a double row of finger-like processes, one row on each side of the gill lamellæ. These large, postero-laterally directed processes have greatly increased the area of the lamella. This member may be secondarily divided again at right angles to the plane of division between the principal gill lamellæ (Fig. 237). This secondary division is not as well developed in the posterior as in the anterior gills. The most posterior gill (Fig. 240) lacks all indication of cleavage. If there is a gill on the first segment, it is simply a slender, elongate member (Fig. 244). The gill on the second abdominal segment is invariably absent and there are some species in which even the third segment may lack a gill. The absence of gills on segments two and three, as in the bicolor-lutulenta complex, in Ephemerella, and in E. margarita, represents specialization greater than that found in species that lack gills only on the second abdominal segment (as in $E$. inermis, $E$. aronii, and $E$. cornuata). Nymphs of the latter species have gills which are closely imbricated on the dorsum of the abdomen. In the bicolor-lutulenta complex, they are more or less stratified, and the protective portion of the first gill almost completely covers all the remaining gills.

Various attempts have been made to split up the genus Ephemerelle. Bengtsson (1909) erected the genus Chitonophora; Needham (1905) created Drunella, and in 1928 segregated the two subgenera Eatonella and Timpanoga.

All these divisions are open to serious criticisms, due primarily to the fact that they are based upon nymphal material. Not until the adults of the various species have been correctly connected to their nymphs is it going to be possible to determine the relationships and the phylogenetic story within the group. Consequently, in this paper the genus Ephemerella has been considered in the sense of including all of the above mentioned divisions.

## Tricorythus

The genus Tricorythus, while clearly distinct from Ephemerella, is more closely related to it than to any other genus of the family.

This genus is greatly specialized. It possesses only one pair of wings, the hind wings having been completely lost. Along with this loss, the anal area (Fig. 46) has been so enlarged that the anal angle has completely disappeared. There seems to be a tendency for each vein to attach to the next posterior vein. With the loss of the anal angle and the expansion of the anal area, the placement of the major veins has been shifted. CuP now joins $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ at the base, and $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$, which had a very weak attachment in Ephemerella, has become completely detached. The cross venation has been restricted to the inner part of the wing disk.

As in Ephemerella, the genitalia in Tricorythus have 3-jointed forceps in the adult state (Fig. 87), consisting of a short basal joint; a long second segment which has a spherical protuberance on its inner proximal surface; and a short, rotund terminal segment. The styliger plate is moderately long, but is deeply excavated medianly while the penes consist of a tubular organ (Fig. 87) that apparently has risen from the fusion of the two penes just as in Ephemerella. In mature nymphs the genitalia (Fig. 94) also show a distinct relationship to Ephemerella.

The mandibles (Fig. 114) are much like those of Ephemerella in regard to the shape, the dentation, and the lacinia mobilis. The maxillæ (Fig. 137) and the labium (Fig. 158) likewise exhibit unmistakable affinities to Ephemerella. The glossæ and paraglossæ have been reduced to an even greater extent than in Ephemerella.

The gills which are located on abdominal segments two to six are complex, just as in Ephemerella, with an anterior lamella (Figs. 245, 249) of each gill modified so as to form a protective shield, and the posterior lamella adapted primarily for respiration. The posterior lamella (Fig. 241) consists of two foliaceous parts which overlap each other. The gills assume a stratified position, i.e., the first gill (Fig. 249) entirely covers the remaining gills. The ancestors of Tricorythus probably had imbricated gills, judging from the structure of the anterior member of each gill. Now, however, the gills are stratified, the foremost gill serving as a shield for all the other gills, and the inferior part
(Fig. 248) of the first gill is so modified that it, in connection with the shield portion, forms a sort of gill box.

Formerly this genus has been considered as a relative of Ccnis, based upon the fact that both genera lack hind wings, and nymphs of the two genera show a striking, although superficial, resemblance. As will be shown in the discussion on Ccenis, these similarities have arisen independently of each other.

Some will doubtless advance the argument that the great similarities between the mouth parts of Ephemerella and Tricorythus are parallel adaptations of the nymphs to somewhat similar habitats. This is possible, but there are similarities in other structures in these insects which seem certain evidence of actual relationships. The genitalia of the two groups are similar and very distinct from the genitalia of other members of the family. Nevertheless, the differences between the gills and the wings of these genera are enough to suggest that the two have been distinct for some time.

The Ephemerella and Tricorythus branch probably arose from the stock which later broke up into the genera Blasturus, Leptophlebia, and Choroterpes, and the family Ephemeridæ. The wings of Ephemerella show a closer resemblance to those of Blasturus than to any other extant genus. The genitalia of the adults of these two genera, it is true, are quite different, but the similarities of the nymphal genitalia between Blasturus, Leptophlebia, and Choroterpes on one hand and Ephemerella and Tricorythus on the other hand can not be disregarded. The mandibles of Ephemerella also show a distinct likeness to those of Blasturus. Superficially the gills of the Ephemerella-Tricorythus stock are very different from the type found in the Blasturus, Leptophlebia, and Choroterpes. Fundamentally, however, the differences are not great. The Ephemerella gill is a double structure of which the inferior lamella of the anterior gills has become secondarily split. The seventh abdominal gills, however, lack this secondary splitting, and each gill consists of a double structure whose lamellæ are greatly expanded and thus basically does not differ from the gill of Blasturus.

Ephemerella-Tricorythus represent a branch of generalized stock described at the end of the section dealing with the Ephe-
meridæ, which probably originated earlier than the stock represented by Blasturus and its relatives. Instead of becoming burrowers as the Ephemeridæ have done, or still living in a habitat very similar to that of their ancestors as Blasturus has done, the Ephemerella-Tricorythus stock became dwellers in and amongst the vegetation and gravels of swiftly flowing waters. Accompanying this the gills became reduced and the superior gill lamellæ developed protective features. The lacinia-galea became heavy and sturdy ; the maxillary palps were reduced in size; and the paraglossæ and glossæ decreased in size, while the internal lobe became large. Since the origin of this stock, the forceps of the adult genitalia have developed the basal segmentation, and the penes have become more or less fused together.

## Super Family Cænoidea <br> Family Cænidæ <br> Cœnis

As mentioned before, Ccnis has been considered a close relative of Tricorythus, because of the superficial external similarities of the nymphs and adults of the two genera; but Tricorythus appears to have been derived from the same stock as the Lep-tophlebidæ-Ephemeridæ stock; and although we are not certain of the ancestors of Conis, the distinctive character of the latter genus shows this type of classification to be absurd. The distinctive characters of Ccenis indicate that it has been removed from the rest of the order for a very long time. Ccenis (Fig. 45) differs from Tricorythus in that $\mathrm{MA}_{2}$ is broken away from M, and $M_{2}$ and IMP are distinct veins that originate in the wing base. The CuP is attached to A at the base, which is the only anal vein present. The cross venation has become reduced to a uniserial condition.

The genitalia (Fig. 89) of Caenis are the most peculiar in the order. During the nymphal stage the genitalia are internal. In mature nymphs (Fig. 90) the forceps and penes can be discerned through the thin chitin of the ninth sternite. The penes appear as a rectangular organ located near the anterior end of the sternite. The forceps seem to be unsegmented and arise lateral to the penes. Posteriorly they extend past the main body of
the ninth sternite and are enclosed in the lateral margins of a mound shaped, posterior extension of the sternite. In the adult the styliger plate is small and narrow, and it is produced laterally into slender, arm-like structures. From the end of these arms arise slender, unsegmented, rod-like forceps. The penes (Fig. 89) consist of a single roughly rectangular organ.

The mandibles (Fig. 117) are quite generalized, but they are heavier than the mandibles in most of our genera. The maxillary palps (Fig. 141) are 3-jointed, with the segments strong and large. The lacinia-galea is slender, roughly cylindrical with the lacinial spurs restricted to the terminal end.

The labium (Fig. 196) is of the generalized type, with three segments to the palpus, and the glossae and paraglossae are distinct and unexpanded. The internal lobe is small and unmodified. Thus the labium simulates the labium of Siphlonurus (Fig. 143).

Gills are to be found on the first six abdominal segments. The first gill (Fig. 251) is rudimentary, consisting of a seta-like organ. The second is a simple, foliaceous, elytroid-like gill (Fig. 250). It covers all the remaining gills and serves as a protective shield. The other gills (Fig. 246) are foliaceous structures, fringed with unilaterally branched filaments.

Briefly, Caenis differs from Tricorythus in the venation, in the structure of the mouth parts (especially the labium), in the genitalia, and in the gills. The gills, it is to be remembered, are complex in Tricorythus, lack all filamentation, and are not single and filamented as in Caenis. Apparently the ancestoral stock from which Caenis arose differentiated long ago, and it has since then become highly specialized. In doing so it has reached, both in the nymphal and adult stage, a condition superficially-but only superficially-like that in Tricorythus.

## Super Family Bætiscoidea

Family Bætiscidæ

## Betisca

The wings (Fig. 54) of this genus are peculiar. The $R_{2}$ and $R_{3}$ veins form a perfect triad. The branching of the posterior median into its two component parts does not take place as usual,
but all three veins ( $\mathrm{MP}_{1}$, IMP, and $\mathrm{MP}_{2}$ ) are separate and distinct veins which originate in the wing base. CuA is an unbranched vein, and both CuA and CuP terminate on the outer wing margin, just as in the primitive Triblosoba. In all other present-day forms which have two pairs of wings and possess an anal angle, the CuP terminates behind the anal angle. The anal area in Betisca is consequently large. Even though $\mathrm{A}_{1}$ terminates on the outer margin, there are only two anal veins present.
The hind wing is large and greatly expanded. The subcostal are is moderate and the radius is weak, extending inward from the margin only about half way to the wing base, thus becoming completely detached. The $\mathrm{R}_{3}$ gives rise to the usual triad, but the anterior limb has become detached. $\mathrm{MA}_{1}$ is an unbranched vein, while the anal area exhibits three anals which are all unattached basally.

I lack sufficient nymphal material to draw conclusions as to the nymphal condition of the genitalia. In the adult state (Fig. 75), the styliger plate of the genitalia is rectangular, while the forceps are 2 -jointed, with a long, arched, proximal joint which is very broad at the base and contracted sharply about two-fifths of the distance from the base. The terminal segment is short and oval. The penes (Fig. 75) consist of a cone shaped organ which is divided terminally.

The mandibles (Fig. 116) represent a somewhat unspecialized form. The two laciniae mobiles (Fig. 167) are similar-a peculiarity displayed by only one other genus of the order; and in both cases this probably represents a primitive condition. The dentation and shape of the mandible exhibit no extraordinary characteristics. The maxillary palps (Fig. 144) are 3 -jointed with an indication of incipient segmentation on the terminal segment. The lacinia-galea (Fig. 144) is heavy but unspecialized as to shape, possessing massive lacinial dentes and lacinial spurs. The latter are restricted closely to the terminal end of the lacinia.

The labium (Fig. 163) has an enormously expanded submentum ; the palp is 3 -jointed, and the glossae and paraglossae are distinct and well developed.

All the gills are concealed under a massive shield which consists of a backward prolongation of the mesothorax. The mesothoracic wing pad of the nymph has been included in this structure. This shield fits closely against the abdomen so as to form a special, highly developed gill chamber. The metathoracic wing pad is also concealed in this chamber. The gills are found on the first five abdominal segments, of which the first is a large foliaceous structure. The posterior four (Fig. 247) are also foliaceous but smaller and more elongated. On the inner margins of these, a number of dichotomously branched filaments arise.

Bcetisca seems a distinct entity in the phylogenetic arrangement of the mayflies. Its ancestral stock must have separated early from the remainder of the order. During its history certain parts have developed astonishing specializations, e.g., the gill chamber, the anal area of the fore wing, the enormously expanded submentum, the distribution of the radius and of the anterior members of the Rs triad of the hind wing, and the peculiar penes. On the other hand, the behavior of the Cu veins of the fore wing, the forceps of the genitalia, the similar laciniae mobiles, and the highly modified but single gills are all primitive characters in the group.

## Summary

1. The mayfly venation is probably the most primitive in existence today and supports Lameere's wing vein hypothesis admirably.
2. The major veins that are to be found in the Ephemerida wings can be homologized vein for vein with those found in the primitive Dictyoneuridæ. None of the major veins have been lost as Lameere and Martynov have hypothesized.
3. The wings are of great importance in the study of the phylogeny of the group. The most primitive genus has a fore wing that tallies even to details with those of the fossil Protereismidæ. Those genera which have only one pair of wings, but that pair somewhat possessing the primitive ancestral shape, have arrived at that shape secondarily and not primarily.
4. The genitalia are of value as generic criteria in the nymphal state as well as in the adult state. Especially valuable are the forceps and the styliger plate. The primitive mayflies, during the adult period, probably had an undivided styliger plate and a 2 -jointed forceps. The latter consisted of a long basal segment and, a short terminal segment. The penes, while excellent as specific characters, are not good indices of generic relationship.
5. The maxillæ, mandibles, and labium can all be employed to advantage as phylogenetic indicators. The mandibles are more conservative than the other two. Usually the conditions found in the maxillæ are parallel to those of the labia.
6. The gills are highly diverse and are excellent indices of generic relationships. The ancestral mayfly nymphs had gills that consisted of simple tubular out-pushings. These have undergone many types of modification to arrive at the present day types.
7. Siphlonurus is the most primitive extant genus.
8. Betisca and Ccenis rose from the ancestral stock before Siphlonurus, but each has become highly specialized in its own peculiar manner.
9. The Baëtidae form one distinct phylogenetic stock, the origin of which can not be determined. It exhibits three separate paths of development within itself.
10. The Heptageniidae represent another branch of the phylogenetic tree. Isonychia occupies an inferior position, while the more highly specialized genera of the Heptageniidae can be divided into two sections.
11. Ephemerella, Tricorythus, Blasturus, Choroterpes, Thraulus, Leptophlebia, and the Ephemeridae constitute another great phylogenetic branch.
12. Ephemerella and Tricorythus, while very distinct now, arose together near the base of the last mentioned stock. Both Ephemerella and Tricorythus are highly specialized now, especially the latter. Tricorythus has no close relationship to Caenis.
13. Blasturus, Choroterpes, Thraulus and Leptophlebia are closely related and have retained many of the original characteristics of the stock from which they were derived.
14. Potamanthus stands intermediate between the remainder of the Ephemeridae and the Leptophlebiidae.
15. The remainder of the Ephemeridæ can, at this time, be divided into two main stocks : the first a closely knit one represented by Hexagenia and Ephemera; the second by Polymitarcys and Pentagenia. Campsurus can not be placed at present.

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## PLATE XVI

Figure 1. Stenodictya Gaudryi Brong. (After Handlirsch).
Figure 2. Hind wing of Proteresma sp? (After Tillyard.)
Figure 3. Fore wing of Siphlonurus sp?
Figure 4. Hind wing of Siphlonurus sp?
Figure 5. Fore wing of Ecdyonurus sp?-interpunctata complex.
Figure 6. Fore wing of Ecdyonurus sp?-tripunctata complex.
Figure 7. Hind wing of Ecdyonurus sp?-tripunctata complex.
Figure 8. Diagram of triadic system of branching of veins.
Figure 9. Hind wing of Triblosoba.
Figure 10. Fore wing of Isonychia sp?
Figure 11. Hind wing of Isonychia sp?
Figure 12. Fore wing of Ecdyonurus sp?
Figure 13. Fore wing of Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis complex.
Figure 14. Hind wing of Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis complex.


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Figure 15. Fore wing of Epeorus sp?
Figure 16. Hind wing of Epeorus sp?
Figure 17. Fore wing of Baëtis sp.
Figure 18. Fore wing of Pseudocloëon sp?
Figure 19. Hind wing of Baëtis sp?
Figure 20. Hind wing of Baëtis sp?
Figure 21. Fore wing of Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 22. Hind wing of Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 23. Fore wing of Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 24. Hind wing of Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 25. Fore wing of Centroptilium sp?
Figure 26. Fore wing of Cloëon sp?
Figure 27. Hind wing of Baëtis sp?
Figure 28. Hind wing of Centroptilium sp ?
Figure 29. Fore wing of Thraulus sp?
Figure 30. Hind wing of Thraulus sp?


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Figure 31. Fore wing of Blasturus sp ?
Figure 32. Hind wing of Blasturus sp ?
Figure 33. Hind wing of Ephemera sp?
Figure 34. Fore wing of Potamanthus sp?
Figure 35. Hind wing of Potamanthus sp?
Figure 36. Hind wing of Pentagenia sp?
Figure 37. Fore wing of Pentagenia sp ?
Figure 38. Fore wing of Campsurus sp?
Figure 39. Fore wing of Ephemera sp?
Figure 40. Hind wing of Hexagenia sp?
Figure 41. Fore wing of Hexagenia sp?
Figure 42. Hind wing of Polymitarcys sp?
Figure 43. Fore wing of Polymitarcys sp?
Figure 44. Hind wing of Campsurus sp?


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Figure 45. Fore wing of Caenis sp.
Figure 46. Fore wing of Tricorythus sp ?
Figure 47. Hind wing of Ephemerella sp?
Figure 48. Genitalia of male imago, Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 49. Genitalia of male imago, Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis complex.
Figure 50. Genitalia of male nymph, Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis com- . plex.
Figure 51. Genitalia of male nymph, Ecdyonurus sp?-interpunctata complex.
Figure 52. Genitalia of male nymph, Ecdyonurus ithaca. Need.
Figure 53. Genitalia of male imago, Ecdyonurus sp?
Figure 54. Fore wing of Baëtisca sp?
Figure 55. Fore wing of Ephemerella sp?
Figure 56. Genitalia of male nymph, Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 57. Genitalia of male nymph, Isonychia sp?
Figure 58. Genitalia of male nymph, Siphlonurus sp?
Figure 59. Genitalia of male imago, Isonychia sp?
Figure 60. Genitalia of male imago, Ecdyonurus sp?-interpunctata complex.
Figure 61. Genitalia of male imago, Siphlonurus sp?


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Figure 62. Genitalia of male imago, Heptagenia sp?
Figure 63. Genitalia of male imago, Thraulus sp ?
Figure 64. Genitalia of male imago, Cloeon sp?
Figure 65. Genitalia of male imago, Baetis sp?
Figure 66. Genitalia of male nymph, Epeorus sp?
Figure 67. Genitalia of male nymph, Rithrogena sp ?
Figure 68. Genitalia of male imago, Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 69. Genitalia of male imago, Centroptilium sp?
Figure 70. Genitalia of male imago, Pseudocloeon sp?
Figure 71. Genitalia of male imago, Ephemera sp?
Figure 72. Genitalia of male imago, Blasturus sp?
Figure 73. Genitalia of male nymph, Baëtis sp?
Figure 74. Genitalia of male nymph, Blasturus sp?
Figure 75. Genitalia of male imago, Baëtisca sp?
Figure 7.6. Genitalia of male imago, Hexagenia sp?
Figure 77. Genitalia of male imago, Potamanthus sp?
Figure 78. Genitalia of male nymph, Choroterpes sp?
Figure 79. Genitalia of male nymph, Potamanthus sp?
Figure 80. Genitalia of male nymph, Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 81. Genitalia of male nymph, Ephemera sp?
Figure 82. Genitalia of male imago, Pentagenia sp?
Figure 83. Genitalia of male imago, Polymitarcys sp?
Figure 84. Genitalia of male imago, Campsurus sp?
Figure 85. Genitalia of male nymph, Hexagenia sp?
Figure 86. Genitalia of male nymph, Polymitarcys sp?


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Figure 87. Genitalia of male imago, Tricorythus sp?
Figure 88. Genitalia of male imago, Ephemerella sp?
Figure 89. Genitalia of male imago, Caenis sp?
Figure 90. Genitalia of male nymph, Caenis sp?
Figure 91. Right mandible of nymph, Isonychia sp?
Figure 92. Genitalia of male nymph, Ephemerella sp?
Figure 93. Genitalia of male nymph, Ephemerella sp?
Figure 94. Genitalia of male nymph, Tricorythus sp?
Figure 95. Right mandible of nymph, Siphlonurus sp?
Figure 96. Right mandible of nymph, Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 97. Right mandible of nymph, Ecdyonurus sp?-interpunctata complex.
Figure 98. Right mandible of nymph, Rithrogena sp?
Figure 99. Right mandible of nymph, Centroptilium sp?
Figure 100. Right mandible of nymph, Epeorus sp?
Figure 101. Right mandible of nymph, Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis complex.
Figure 102. Right mandible of nymph, Ecdyonurus sp?


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Figure 103. Right mandible of nymph, Cloeon sp?
Figure 104. Right mandible of nymph, Potamanthus sp?
Figure 105. Right mandible of nymph, Hexagenia sp?
Figure 106. Right mandible of nymph, Polymitarcys sp?
Figure 107. Right mandible of nymph, Baëtis sp?
Figure 108. Right mandible of nymph, Potamanthus sp?
Figure 109. Right mandible of nymph, Ephemera sp?
Figure 110. Right mandible of nymph, Pentagenia sp?
Figure 111. Right mandible of nymph, Choroterpes sp?
Figure 112. Right mandible of nymph, Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 113. Right mandible of nymph, Ephemerella sp?
Figure 114. Right mandible of nymph, Tricorythus sp?
Figure 115. Right mandible of nymph, Blasturus sp ?


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Figure 116. Right mandible of nymph, Baetisca sp ?
Figure 117. Right mandible of nymph, Caenis sp.
Figure 118. Maxilla of nymph, Siphlonurus sp?
Figure 119. Maxilla of nymph, Isonychia sp?
Figure 120. Maxilla of nymph, Rithrogena sp?
Figure 121. Maxilla of nymph, Epeorus sp?
Figure 122. Maxilla of nymph, Centroptilium sp?
Figure 123. Maxilla of nymph, Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 124. Maxilla of nymph, Heptagenia sp?-muculipennis complex.
Figure 125. Maxilla of nymph, Ecdyonurus ithaca. Need.
Figure 126. Maxilla of nymph, Cloëon sp?
Figure 127. Maxilla of nymph, Baëtis sp?
Figure 128. Maxilla of nymph, Ecdyonurus sp?-interpunctata complex.
Figure 129. Maxilla of nymph, Blasturus sp?
Figure 130. Maxilla of nymph, Ecdyonurus sp?


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Figure 131. Maxilla of nymph, Choroterpes sp ?
Figure 132. Maxilla of nymph, Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 133. Maxilla of nymph, Potamanthus sp?
Figure 134. Maxilla of nymph, Polymitarcys sp?
Figure 135. Maxilla of nymph, Ephemerella sp?
Figure 136. Maxilla of nymph, Ephemerella sp?
Figure 137. Maxilla of nymph, Tricorythus sp?
Figure 138. Maxilla of nymph, Hexagenia sp?
Figure 139. Maxilla of nymph, Ephemera sp?
Figure 140. Maxilla of nymph, Pentagenia sp?
Figure 141. Maxilla of nymph, Caenis sp?
Figure 142. Labium of nymph, Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis complex.
Figure 143. Labium of nymph, Siphlonurus sp?
Figure 144. Maxilla of nymph, Baetisca sp ?
Figure 145. Labium of nymph, Ecdyonurus sp?
Figure 146. Labium of nymph, Epeorus sp?
Figure 147. Labium of nymph, Isonychia sp?


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Figure 148. Labium of nymph, Rithrogena sp?
Figure 149. Labium of nymph, Ecdyonurus ithaca. Need.
Figure 150. Labium of nymph, Centroptilium sp?
Figure 151. Labium of nymph, Blasturus sp?
Figure 152. Labium of nymph, Polymitarcys sp?
Figure 153. Labium of nymph, Ephemera sp?
Figure 154. Labium of nymph, Cloëon sp?
Figure 155. Labium of nymph, Choroterpes sp?
Figure 156. Labium of nymph, Pentagenia sp?
Figure 157. Labium of nymph, Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 158. Labium of nymph, Tricorythus sp?
Figure 159. Labium of nymph, Potamanthus sp?
Figure 160. Labium of nymph, Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 161. Labium of nymph, Hexagenia sp?
Figure 162. Labium of nymph, Baëtis sp?
Figure 163. Labium of nymph, Baetisca sp?
Figure 164. Labium of nymph, Ephemerella sp?
Figure 165. Labium of nymph, Ephemerella sp?


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Figure 166. Lacinia mobilis of nymph, Siphlonurus sp ?
Figure 167. Lacinia mobilis of nymph, Baetisca sp?
Figure 168. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Caenis sp?
Figure 169. Left lacinia mobilis of nymṕh, Caenis sp?
Figure 170. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Isonychia sp?
Figure 171. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Isonychia sp?
Figure 172. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Baëtis sp?
Figure 173. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Baëtis sp?
Figure 174. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Ecdyonurus sp?
Figure 175. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Blasturus sp?
Figure 176. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Blasturus sp?
Figure 177. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 178. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 179. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Callibaëtis sp ?
Figure 180. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 181. Right lacinia mobolis of nymph, Choroterpes sp ?
Figure 182. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Choroterpes sp ?
Figure 183. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Centroptilium sp?
Figure 184. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Cloëon sp?
Figure 185. Lacinia mobilis of nymph, Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis complex.
Figure 186. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Potamanthus sp?
Figure 187. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Potamanthus sp?
Figure 188. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Ephemerella sp?
Figure 189. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Hexagenia sp?
Figure 190. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Hexagenia sp?
Figure 191. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Polymitarcys sp?
Figure 192. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Ephemerella sp?
Figure 193. Right lacinia mobilis of nymph, Ephemera sp?
Figure 194. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Ephemera sp?
Figure 195. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Pentagenia sp?
Figure 196. Labium of nymph, Caenis sp?
Figure 197. Left lacinia mobilis of nymph, Tricorythus sp?


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## PLATE XXVII

Figure 198. Anterior lamella of first gill of Siphlonurus sp?
Figure 199. Posterior lamella of first gill of Siphlonurus sp?
Figure 200. Posterior lamella of third gill of Isonychia sp?
Figure 201. Anterior lamella of third gill of Ecdyonurus ithaca. Need.
Figure 202. Posterior lamella of third gill of Ecdyonurus ithaca. Need.
Figure 203. Seventh gill of Ecdyonurus ithaca.
Figure 204. Seventh gill of Siphlonurus sp?
Figure 205. Anterior lamella of third gill of Isonychia sp?
Figure 206. Anterior lamella of third gill of Ecdyonurus sp?-interpunctata complex.
Figure 207. Posterior lamella of third gill of Ecdyonurus sp?-interpunctata complex.
Figure 208. Seventh gill of Ecdyonurus sp?-interpunctata complex.
Figure 209. Anterior lamella of third gill of Epeorus sp?
Figure 210. Posterior lamella of third gill of Epeorus sp?
Figure 211. Anterior lamella of third gill of Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis complex.
Figure 212. Seventh gill of Cloëon sp?
Figure 213. First gill of Centroptilium sp?
Figure 214. Third gill of Cloëon sp?
Figure 215. Seventh gill of Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis complex.
Figure 216. Posterior lamella of third gill of Heptagenia sp?-maculipennis complex.
Figure 217. Fourth gill of Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 218. Second gill of Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 219. Seventh gill of Callibaëtis sp?
Figure 220. Third gill of Baetis sp?
Figure 221. Third gill of Centroptilium sp?


## PLATE XXVIII

Figure 222. Anterior lamella of third gill of Choroterpes sp?
Figure 223. Posterior lamella of third gill of Choroterpes sp ?
Figure 224. First gill of Choroterpes sp?
Figure 225. Anterior lamella of third gill of Blasturus sp ?
Figure 226. Posterior lamella of third gill of Blasturus sp?
Figure 227. First gill of Blasturus sp?
Figure 228. Third gill of Leptophlebia sp?
Figure 229. Third gill of Potamanthus sp?
Figure 230. First gill of Hexagenia sp?
Figure 231. Posterior lamella of third gill of Hexagenia sp?
Figure 232. Anterior lamella of third gill of Hexagenia sp?
Figure 233. Anterior lamella of third gill of Pentagenia sp?
Figure 234. Posterior lamella of third gill of Pentagenia sp?
Figure 235. Seventh gill of twenty day old nymph of Hexagenia sp?
Figure 236. Sixth gill of eleven day old nymph of Hexagenia sp?
Figure 237. Posterior lamella of third gill of Ephemerella sp?
Figure 238. Third gill of Ephemera sp?
Figure 239. First gill of Polymitarcys sp?
Figure 240. Posterior lamella of seventh gill of Ephemerella sp?
Figure 241. Posterior lamella of third gill of Tricorythus sp ?
Figure 242. Anterior lamella of third gill of Ephemerella sp?
Figure 243. Third gill of Polymitarcys sp?
Figure 244. First gill of Ephemerella sp?
Figure 245. Anterior lamella of second gill of Tricorythus sp ?


## PLATE XXIX

Figure 246. Third gill of Caenis sp?
Figure 247. Second gill of Baetisca sp?
Figure 248. Posterior lamella of first gill of 'Tricorythus sp?
Figure 249. Anterior lamella of first gill of Tricorythus sp?
Figure 250. Second gill of Caenis sp?
Figure 251. First gill of Caenis sp ?



[^0]:    * Upon further study, I have become convinced that the adult specimens utilized for this paper as representatives of Choroterpes belong to the genus Thraulus rather than to Chroroterpes. In reading the first section of this paper (N. Y. Ent. Soc., 41: 55-86), the reader should bear this correction in mind In the following discussion, the reader will note that I lack nymphal material for Thraulus and adult material for Choroterpes. The two genera seem to be so closely related, however, that I feel certain my phylogenetic placement of them is correct.

